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which it requires to encircle the earth, at the rate of 9 miles and upwards the hour, for 1896 consecutive hours.

As I write this, the abstract of another ship the *Comet*, E. C. Gardner, from San Francisco to New York, is received. She, too, has made the passage in 83·3 days, sailing during the interval 17,496 statute miles, and averaging 210 miles a day. She, however, except merely by doubling Cape Horn, did run through the region of the trade-like winds and heaving swells of the South Pacific, which favoured the Sovereign of the Seas to such an extent; and therefore no fair comparison can be made as to the relative sailing qualities of these two ships.

There is another circumstance, however, connected with this voyage of the *Sovereign of the Seas*, which is worthy of attention, for it is significant, and a fact illustrative of the revolutions in the way of business which are being quietly wrought by the time-saving devices of the age. This splendid ship, after unloading her cargo in California, was sent to glean after our whalemén, and she came home with oil gathered from them at the Sandwich Islands.

This adventurous class of our fellow-citizens resort there in such numbers that the fees annually paid by the government for the relief of the sick and disabled seamen there, amount to upwards of 50,000 dollars.

Now, if the Pacific Railway were built, the thousands of American seamen, and the fleets of American whale ships, that annually resort to those islands for refreshment and repairs, would resort to California. There they would be in their own country; the oil would probably be sent home on railway, instead of by clipper ship, and all the advantage of refitting so many ships, of treating and recruiting so many men, would inure to the benefit of our own-citizens. Respectfully,

(Signed)

M. F. MAURY,

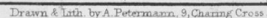
Lieutenant U. S. Navy.

XX.—*Chusan, with a Survey Map of the Island.* By Sir J. F. DAVIS, Bart., F.R.S., F.R.G.S.

Read June 13, 1853.

THE importance of this island was sufficiently demonstrated by its capture on two successive occasions by a British force, and its retention (on the last) for a period of four years, as a guarantee for the fulfilment of the stipulations of the treaty with China. If any additional considerations could augment the importance of *Chusan*, it would be the vicinity of the position to Japan, and its intervening between the mainland of China and that other nation which once actually occupied it, and which is fast becoming an object of interest and speculation to the civilized world. Whatever may be the result of the pending American expedition to Japan, it is certain that the new current of adventure, setting westward across the Pacific, must find Japan, with *Chusan*, the first outposts of the Asiatic Continent in that direction; and Christian states must inevitably be involved in relations, amicable or otherwise, with those hitherto secluded regions. The object of this paper is to illustrate a Map of *Chusan*, completed by actual survey during our last occupation of the island, when Brigadier (now Sir Colin) Campbell had the command, and to add such other details as could be collected from various sources (chiefly through Dr. Gutzlaff) in several visits to the spot. The last was

To accompany a Memoir on the Island
by
SIR JOHN FRANCIS DAVIS Bart.
F.R.S., F.R.G.S.



in 1846, on my surrendering Chusan to the Chinese government, according to the provisions of the treaty of Nanking.

The Chusan group appears at first to have been occupied by fishermen. The islands were in the seventh century incorporated with China, although the control at first exercised was of a precarious nature. Tradition states, that an emperor of the Soong dynasty, who held his court at Hâng-chow during the Mongol invasion, fled to Chusan for shelter. During the Ming, or next Chinese dynasty, the Japanese, then the most commercial nation of Eastern Asia, made Chusan their entrepôt, and carried on a lucrative trade. Having afterwards gone to war, on account of the illtreatment of their countrymen by the Chinese, they took possession of the island and kept it for many years. This forms a singular parallel, as far as it goes, with our own case. Chusan subsequently reverted to the *Ming*, or Chinese dynasty,* whose representatives, long after the Manchow Tartars had taken possession of China, sought refuge there and defended themselves. But the Manchows at length became masters of Chusan and surrounded Tinghae, the capital, with a wall. They made it, moreover, a naval station, such as it was found by our force in 1840.

The latitude of Jos-house hill, to the right of the landing-place, near Tinghae, is $30^{\circ} 0' 24''$ N., and its longitude $122^{\circ} 6' 24''$ E. of Greenwich. The island lies from N.W. to S.E., with a circumference of $51\frac{1}{4}$ miles, the extreme length being 20, the extreme breadth 10, and the least breadth 6 miles. The hills which traverse the whole island with their various spurs, render the divisions of the territory natural ones; and the valleys between them contain the small towns or villages with their population, which all belonged to the Hien of Tinghae, dependent in its turn on the superior district, or Foo, of Ningpo. The town of Tinghae stands about half a mile from the beach, of irregular form, nearest approaching a pentagon; in length about 1200 yards from N. to S., and 1000 in average breadth. The surrounding wall is nearly 3 miles in circuit, with four gates, each defended by an outer gate having a side approach. The ditch on the outside of the wall is interrupted on the N.W. side by a spur from a neighbouring hill, which projects into the town, and forms an easy access to an attacking force on that side. This hill constituted the head-quarters of the Cameronian regiment in 1840. On the arrival of the British force in that year, the population of Tinghae numbered from 25,000 to 30,000.

Upon the S. coast of the island, the plains consist mainly of

* The new aspirant has assumed the title of "*How Ming*," or "*Latter Ming*" dynasty.

alluvial tracts gained from the sea, and still on the increase. There are in some places threefold dykes, showing the gradual encroachment of human industry upon the deep. On the northern coast the case is different; there the sea, unchecked by those numerous islands which to the S. act as natural break-waters, beats with great violence on the shore, urged by the prevailing N.W. winds; and the inhabitants have with incredible labour reared solid stone walls in the most exposed spots, to prevent the salt water getting into their rice-fields.

The valley in which Tinghae stands is called *Yungtung*, and is one of the most extensive in the island, being 4 miles long by 3 broad. Standing nearly on a level with the sea, and copiously irrigated by canals, it is well suited to rice cultivation. It is enclosed along the S. front by an extensive dyke. This was in 1841 considerably raised and converted into a line of batteries, which our force easily took in flank.

Proceeding westward we come to *Yen-tsang*, a valley which (as its name imports) contains extensive salt-works. It is still lower than the former, and protected by a double row of dykes. Our men-of-war generally anchored in front of this. The inland valley of *Chae-ho* opens into it, and sends a stream through it to the sea.

Further W. along the coast, and penetrating N. into the interior, is the extensive valley of Tsze-wei, richly cultivated with rice and sweet potatoes. The plain in the immediate vicinity of the sea bears traces of having been recently gained from the water, and the dykes are in some places fourfold. One was, during 1843, in actual process of construction, a proof of the confidence of the natives in their new masters. This lowland is divided by spurs from the hills; and insulated hillocks, which at some time or other were evidently islets, rise from the plain. The distance between it and the island of Kintang* (called by us during the war "Silver Island") is inconsiderable.

Chae-ho is an inland valley to the eastward (divided into Upper and Lower, or North and South *Chae-ho*), running parallel with the former nearly N. and S., but the smallest of the two. Its romantic scenery was an object of admiration to every one. There are considerable mountains at the sides, and the land gradually rises to the W. and N., where it terminates in some lofty and bleak elevations, the most barren as well as highest portion of the whole island.

The westernmost valley of the S. coast is *Tsinkong*, which winds W. and N., and is again subdivided by spurs from the hills. Close to it is *Tsatsoo*, called by us "Blackwall Island;"

* The nearest point of communication with the mainland of Ningpo.

and the harbour is formed by three islets, which at some points approach so near to the Tsin-kong side as to make the harbour look like a river. One very high pass leads into the Tsze-wei valley on the E., and several smaller ones join it to *Tae-sha* on the N.

The last-mentioned, or "Great Sandy" Valley, consists of three narrow and separate divisions, running between ridges of hills in a N. and N.W. direction towards the sea, opposite to the island of Chang-pih Shan. This forms the north-western extremity of Chusan, connected with Tsze-wei by a pass over the mountains, as well as with *Seaou-sha Aou*, or "Little Sandy Valley."

Seaou-sha gradually extends in breadth northward towards the sea. There is a branch of the Tsze-wei division with which it stands in immediate connexion southwards; while a long and narrow defile leads off inland to Chae-ho, through a country of barrenness.

Going now in an easterly direction round the island, we arrive at *Ma Aou*, or Horse Valley, the second large plain in the island, and an extensive tract of the most fertile soil. With the exception of the mountain road which leads to Chae-ho, the hills around this are not very high.

The narrow valley of Kan-lan runs parallel with it, and spreads towards the sea. The hills inland to the S. are lofty and sterile, but the pass leading into *Pih-tseuen* is not very high. This valley of "white springs" spreads over a considerable plain, forming the centre of the northern valleys, and lying opposite to *Yung-tung* on the S. In that direction it communicates with *Seaou-seč*, which consists of two verdant plains, yielding in fertility only to *Pih-tseuen*, and further S. with *Yung-tung* by the high *Tung-kaou* Ling, or "Pass."

Further E., along the N. coast, is *Pě-chen Aou*. This lies opposite to the island of Lan-sew-shan, being in some places very narrow between the hills, while in others it extends more inland. Pě-chen is subdivided by several passes until it reaches further eastward to *Tachen*, the easternmost of the northern plains, a district of considerable magnitude extending along the sea-shore, and running inland into several smaller valleys, which are connected with *Tung Aou*, *Leu-hwa*, *Poo Aou*, and *To Aou* to the S.

The last-named is on the south-eastern extremity of Chusan, with its harbour at *Sinkeamun*, which harbour is land-locked by the opposite islet of Lokea. Going now due W., we arrive at a mountain pass which leads into *Leu-hwa*. This consists of two large and several small valleys winding along at the foot of mountains, and opening to the W. on the extensive plains of *Tung Aou*, which is again subdivided into the *inner* and *outer*. It

contains the largest level space on the island, and towards the sea has extensive alluvial plains, well situated for the manufacture of salt, which engages the attention of the greater portion of the poorer classes.

Wooseay, consisting of several small divisions, joins it on the W., and has likewise a narrow strip towards the sea; and after crossing two small valleys, one of which is called *Yang Aou* (from the fruit peculiar to the island), and the other *Tsing Aou*, we again reach *Yungtung* and the town of Tinghae, from whence we set out.

The Map of Chusan shows the direction of the mountains, running principally across the breadth of the island. The greater part of the surface is hilly ground, in geological character generally corresponding with the adjacent group, and consisting chiefly of granite. No volcanic traces have yet been discovered, although several of the Japanese islands, at a short sailing distance, are of that class, and among them Sulphur Island has an actually burning crater.

On most of the hills there is a moderate coating of earth, which permits the growth of grass and fir-trees; and industry has improved their natural advantages to the production of sweet potatoes and other vegetables. The climate of the island, in 30° lat., is admirably suited to the vine, as are also the declivities of the hills; but the Chinese make no wine from the grape. Bamboo groves are planted, notwithstanding the comparatively high latitude. The tea-shrub grows in many places luxuriantly. An exception occurs in the highest ridges about *Seaou-sha*, *Chae-ho*, and *Ma Aou*, which are comparative barrenness, fit only for herds of goats. In some places artificial terraces have been constructed, and, as the supply of water is considerable, the earth thus retained by stone walls produces good crops of rice. The inhabitants have been very diligent in the construction of paved paths across the hills, which facilitate the communication at all seasons of the year. There are also small Buddhist temples built in these passes, where the passenger is supplied with tea, the leaves of which the surrounding peasantry contribute gratuitously.

At a distance these elevations often look very wild, but on a nearer approach it is found that no soil has been lost, the smallest patches having some productive cultivation. Every poor man may choose an unoccupied spot on the hills and prepare the soil for trees or vegetables, paying little more than a nominal rent, and remaining the undisputed owner as long as he continues to cultivate it.

The ground-rent of the whole island appears to be very light. According to a return obtained by Lieut. Shadwell, of the 98th Regiment (for some time holding civil employ), there are three

rates of rent, as in the rest of China. The irrigated ground, or *Tien*, pays annually per *mow*, 110 copper coins in money, and something under 2 *caltics* of rice. The dry ground, or *Te*, where corn and vegetables are grown, pays 88 copper coins, and about $1\frac{1}{2}$ *caltics* of rice. The remaining ground, called *Shan*, or hills, pays only 3 copper coins, and nothing in kind. The object of a part payment in grain may be to preserve something like an average corn-rent.

There are many small streams running from the mountains and crossing the plains into the sea, of which the largest is the Tung-keang, east of the town, which reaches the harbour close to Jos-house Hill. At high water, the native boats can ascend this only a short distance, to a place called Tung-keang Poo, where a number of merchants carry on an active trade with the neighbouring main. There is not a valley without its stream; some with boats, sluices, and bridges. Many are dry during the summer, but when the rains fall they furnish sufficient water for the canals and reservoirs. The canals in some places form a network, and furnish a supply to every rice-field. Though not constructed by persons of professed science, they prove to have been laid out on the best plan, and are examples of practical skill. It is only within the town itself of Tinghae that these canals are noxious, exhaling most offensively in summer.

During part of the winter, the canals of the lowest valleys overflow and cover the fields, though most of the roads and paths are sufficiently raised for keeping up the communication. The inundation which occurred in 1843, at the commencement of October (during our occupation), was unprecedented. The clouds seemed to come down in a mass, and the water accumulated with such rapidity that no precautions could abate its violent effects. The western part of the island exhibited a sheet of water, out of which the hills rose as islands. Immense pieces of rock were swept down by the torrents from the mountains, bridges and causeways destroyed, some of the rivulets changed their beds, while many of the most fertile fields remained covered with gravel; but on ordinary occasions, the sluices are sufficiently adapted to letting off the waters, however great the quantity. The wet and dry seasons here and at Hongkong* are reversed; in the south the winter is dry, and the flooding rains fall during summer. The difference of lat. about 8° .

As to climate, very accurate tables were kept during our long tenure of Chusan. Considering the position of the island, in 30° lat., the average temperature is remarkably low; but the influence

* This word is often written as two separate ones; but there is no better reason for writing Hong Kong than Chu San or Lon Don.

of the sea tempers both the extremes in comparison with the opposite main. In the beginning of the winter of 1841, while the snow at Ningpo fell above a foot in depth, and remained on the ground for several days, there was a mere sprinkling at Chusan. North-westerly winds prevail throughout the year, and it is only during July and August that the heat is oppressive to Europeans. In 1843 the weather was still so cold during some part of May as to render a fire comfortable. Nature revives generally about the beginning of February, when the first blossoms of the plum-tree make their appearance. The real flower season is in April and May, when the whole surface of the country is decked in the brightest colours. Cherries are ripe in May, and a great variety of vegetables brought to market, including peas and beans. In June the grain harvest commences, and most of the blossoms diminish. A new cultivation takes place this month. Crops of rice, with millet, coriander and other seeds are then sown, and rain falls to July. In September the weather is generally cool and dry, and the temperature delightful in October, during which the last of the rice harvest is brought in. The sweet potatoes are ripe in September. The first hoarfrost is seen in November, and during December it often freezes severely; but the ice does not remain so long as on the main. Most of the trees being deciduous, the island looks bleak during the winter. The fan-palm, however, grows in the open plains, and even the plantain in sheltered nooks; but this last, though it blossoms, brings no fruit to maturity. Opinions were at first very unfavourable as to the healthiness of the climate, and the terrible mortality among the troops in 1840 seemed to justify the worst that could be formed. Certainly the rice-fields, which are nothing but marshes, alternately flooded and dry, might lead to the conclusion that the exhalations must be unfavourable to European constitutions. But in 1840, much of the ill effect might be ascribed to the influence of the war. The fever was then prevalent among the natives, and carried off large numbers of them. Subsequent experience, from 1842 to 1846, when the island was peaceably restored, convinced the most doubtful that the climate is really salubrious, and that the mortality among the troops in 1840 was caused chiefly by the want of wholesome provisions and good lodging, joined to the effects of *samshoo*, the deleterious Chinese spirit. Fevers occasionally prevail during the summer months, but they seldom resist the use of quinine. The Sepoy troops from India suffered from the cold of the winter.

In its productions Chusan does not materially differ from the adjacent mainland of Ningpo. The sleek and small cattle, and the buffaloes, larger than those in the south, are used exclusively for the plough, and never slaughtered for the use of the Chinese,

so near to the head-quarters of Buddhism in the neighbouring island of Pooto. The small cultivators do not keep a bullock, but there are men who hire them out for the value of about 8*d.* a day. There are no grazing pastures, the cattle being driven to the mountains, and receiving very little fodder besides. The soil being very adhesive, ploughing is a difficult process; but, notwithstanding the smallness of the cattle, they are very efficient, and more than one is seldom or never seen in a plough. Horses are not used for agricultural purposes, and the Chinese government does not allow the common people to have them in their possession. There are, however, asses of a very strong description, and a mule is occasionally met with. These are used exclusively for riding; while all burthens are either transported in boats or on men's backs. A small species of goat is killed for its meat; but they give very little milk, an article of which no Chinese ever makes any use whatever. During the British occupation many flocks of Tartar sheep were brought over from the main, and thrived extremely well; but they were killed entirely for the consumption of the English. Pigs are not so numerous as on the main, and are sometimes imported from thence. The dog is of the common Chinese breed, like the Esquimaux variety; and occasionally a very diminutive Japanese dog is met with. The island is too well peopled to leave much range for wild animals; a few small deer seem to be the chief.

Fowls are of the largest description, in fact of the Ningpo breed. Ducks are reared in immense quantities by the peasantry. There are large establishments where the young are artificially hatched, and sold at the rate of forty ducklings for a dollar. Even geese are hatched in a similar manner. A few pheasants and woodcocks were found by English sportsmen. Wild swans come during the winter in hundreds, and occupy the extensive watery flats; as also wild geese and wild ducks. Our people shot snipes in the rice stubble, but they are not disturbed by the natives. The presence of our force, and the demand for game, gradually induced the Chinese to pursue it; but the principal part comes from the main.

One of the dainties in the waters of Chusan is the yellow, or mandarin fish, which, during April, May, and June, is caught round the island in such quantities as to occupy above a thousand boats. It is a large fish, rather flat, and of a yellowish hue, and, when fresh, nearly as handsome as the gold-fish, with a dorsal fin of the same colour. When caught, it is immediately sold to merchants who are on the spot, with large boats filled with ice, in which, being carefully packed, it is taken over to the main, and thus sold all over the country. The flesh is good, and when a little seasoned with sauce, possesses an excellent flavour, highly estimated by

Chinese gourmands. This fishery forms an important branch of industry, and occupies a considerable portion of the islanders. A small species of shark, of a dark grey colour, is also caught during summer, and, being salted, is sent to other parts of China. The shallow, muddy seas in this neighbourhood abound in fish, and produce herring, mackerel, mullet, pomfret, ray, sole, sturgeon, and other varieties.

Of reptiles, a black snake is very common, and found in the fields; but, from the little heed taken by the natives, it may be supposed to be innocuous. There is another large snake that frequents houses, pursuing rats, and other vermin, with great hostility; and, as it is harmless, the natives do not discourage it. It is black on the back, with a yellowish-white belly, and grows to six or eight feet in length. The silkworm is reared by only a few families, but the position and the climate of the island would insure success in a more extensive cultivation of its produce.

Chusan does not abound in wood. This scarcity is not the fault of the soil, but owing to the thriftless habit of cutting down all the growth of the hills as it rises up. The most frequent, perhaps, is the useful tallow-tree (*Stillingia*), spared and cultivated on account of its produce. It is found principally on the banks of streams, where it blossoms in May, and the berries form in bunches, coming to maturity in October and November. By this time the leaves are of a beautiful red, the pods containing the seeds burst, and these seeds make their appearance coated with white tallow, and about the size of a pea. Suddenly the leaves fall off, and the trees, from the whiteness of their berries, look as if they were in blossom. The natives then cut the branches, gather the berries, boil and press them so as to make the tallow run into a fat, which, when congealed, resembles the animal tallow, but is less firm and consistent. The island produces a large quantity of this substance, especially in the north-western districts, and exports largely.

The varnish-tree, which somewhat resembles the fig, thrives also very well in *Chusan*. The oil or varnish extracted is inferior to that produced in *Ganhoey*, which may perhaps be from another plant. The natives excel in applying it to wood-work of all kinds. Their furniture, and the framework of the best buildings, are beautifully varnished; and the durability of the coating is such as to insure its superiority to all oil-painting, and other contrivances for protecting wood against the influence of climate and time. The tree might be introduced with great advantage into Europe.

The camphor-tree also flourishes at *Chusan*, and will grow to a large size if permitted. The natives, however, only use the wood, and do not extract the resin as they do on the main. This

tree, too, might be well introduced in Europe, being very ornamental and sufficiently hardy. A kind of elm, of which the blossoms, when dried, are used as a dye-stuff, and much esteemed by the Chinese, grows on the banks of streams. The dwarf fir and oak are as common as the full-grown trees are rare. The banian ficus is even in this latitude a beautiful tree, and, as in the interior of China, planted for religious purposes round temples and other public buildings. A slender graceful pine is cultivated for ornament; and the people show superstitious veneration for the cypress, which they plant chiefly near graves.* This peculiar sort is the *Cupressus pendula*, or "weeping cypress," brought to England by Mr. Fortune. The Chinese say that this tree soon decays, but the wood is firm and fragrant, and esteemed by their cabinet-makers.

The natives possess apricot, peach, plum, apple, and pear trees, but take no trouble to improve them; and the fruit is consequently of the most wretched description. The Loquat, and some kinds of oranges, grow well without much care. The best fruit in the island is what has been erroneously styled "arbutus," which it very closely resembles both in fruit and leaves, being at the same time quite a different tree. The Chinese call it *yangmei*, and Mr. Fortune says it is—

"A species of *Myrica*, allied to the Himalayan *M. Sapida*, noticed by Frazer, Royle, and other writers. The Chinese variety, however, is much superior to the Indian. Indeed, I believe the Chinese have both, but use the Indian as a stock for grafting on. There is a very large plantation of this tree in Chusan, and the fruit was beginning to be brought to the market during my stay. The trees were bushy, round headed, and from fifteen to twenty feet in height. They were at that time loaded with dark red fruit, not unlike, at first sight, the fruit of our arbutus, although very differently formed (internally) and much larger."

It is well worth introducing in England.

"The oil plant, *Brassica sinensis* (Mr. Fortune observes), is in seed, and ready to be taken from the ground in the beginning of May, and there is a great demand for the oil which is pressed from its seeds. I may state that this plant is a species of cabbage, producing flower stems three or four feet high, with yellow flowers and long pods of seed like all the cabbage tribe. In April, when the fields are in bloom, the whole country seems tinged with gold, and the fragrance which fills the air, particularly after an April shower, is delightful."

He adds,—

"The flora of Chusan, and all over the main land in this part of the province of Chëkeang, is very different from that of the south. Almost all the species of a tropical character have entirely disappeared, and in their places we

* "When I am dead, inter my body on the brow of some unfrequented hill, and plant the fir and the cypress thickly around."—Chinese drama, 'Heir in Old Age,' p. 34.

find others related to those found in temperate climates in other parts of the world."

That new and beautiful plant, the *weigelia rosea*, was first discovered, Mr. Fortune tells us, in the garden of a Chinese mandarin, near the city of Tinghae on this island. "It was loaded with its noble rose-coloured flowers, and was the admiration of all who saw it, both English and Chinese." It is fortunately quite a hardy plant, and flourishes in the open air in this country.

The tea-shrub is grown almost everywhere on the island, but treated with little care, and left almost wholly to itself. The produce is accordingly of an inferior kind. It seldom grows above four feet in height; and occurs sometimes wild among the mountains. The utmost care taken by the natives is to weed a little round the plants; and so congenial does the climate appear withal, that the plant still thrives, and produces good crops of leaves. There are, on an average, two gatherings in the year. The first commences in April, and comprises the young and finer leaves. Old and young women are then busily employed in gathering them, while the mistress of the family keeps up a slow fire under a large iron pan, into which they are thrown. When sufficiently heated, a strong man receives them into an oval basket, and kneads them with all his might in order to press out the superfluous moisture. They are then spread out on a large frame of wicker work, under which a little fire is kept up. This process is repeated after an interval, and the tea is subsequently sorted and picked, and sold to small merchants, who export it to the main, principally Soo-chow. The finest tea fetches about a quarter of a dollar (or one shilling) per catty, of 1½ lb., and suits the Chinese; though, on account of the slightness of the firing, it is not calculated for the foreign market. Chusan exports about 30,000 dollars worth every year, besides its own consumption.

The bulk of the inhabitants give their whole time to the cultivation of rice, the *summum bonum* of every Chinese, who affects to pity those countries which do not grow it. Wherever the smallest spot can be converted into a rice-field, they are ready to abandon any other culture, though it might seem more advantageous. Notwithstanding this, however, there is not sufficient produce for the consumption of the island, and one-fourth the annual supply is brought from Tae-choo. They have the white, red, and *no-me*, or old man's rice. The first resembles Carolina rice in the largeness and whiteness of the grain. The seed is first thickly sown in a small bed in the spring. Thence it is transplanted into the field in bunches, and placed very exactly in rows. The greatest care is taken to provide an ample supply of water, with which the field is flooded; and the tread-wheels are constantly

raising water to the different levels in dry weather. Every weed is carefully pulled up, and the appearance of any is considered discreditable to the cultivator. The grain is ripe about the month of August: after being first bent down by the farmer, it is subsequently cut off, and thrashed out by beating against the inside edge of a large basket or tub, provided with raised sides to prevent the loss of the grain. Next it is dried, freed from straw and other impurities, and laid up for use. To disengage it from the husk, they pound it in large stone mortars, and then winnow it. The coarser kinds are placed in a stone mill, which is put in motion by a bullock, and a rotatory grinding separates the chaff from the grain. The crop that has been last put into the ground arrives at maturity in October, or even as late as November; but this crop, on account of the uncertainty of the weather, is liable to be spoiled before it can be gathered in. The produce varies from twenty to thirty fold.

One of the most graceful and prolific grains in Chusan is the Barbadoes millet, which grows to a great height, and is said to produce an hundred fold. Towards harvest time, when rice is getting scarce, it is made into cakes of a reddish hue, and thus constitutes the food of the people. The large thick stalks are used for fuel. There are besides two other kinds of millet, of a fine grain and very white, which are used instead of rice.

The wheat is of an inferior description. There are two different species, both of which have a low stalk, and one is unbearded. The Chusanites cultivate it like rice, transplanting it in bunches, but without the irrigation. Of the flour they make cakes and vermicelli, and use the grain extensively in distilleries. The barley is small, and ground down by the poorer classes to mix with their rice. Buckwheat is grown in small quantities on the most sterile lands, and also found wild.

The attempts to introduce our common potato succeeded in some measure; but the sweet potato grows so successfully on the brows of the hills, that it constitutes a cheap and excellent food for all. The yam and taro are grown, but the latter is small and insipid. The fields produce a variety of summer and winter beans, as well as green peas. The radishes, turnips, and carrots are very fine; but the variety of kitchen vegetables is not great. The brinjal (a species of *solanum*) grows in perfection, as well as cabbage, lettuce, and spinach, with cucumbers, melons, and pumpkins. There is the large *Petsae* or Peking cabbage (more like a lettuce in appearance), which is salted or pickled and eaten largely by the Chinese. Ginger, of an excellent description, is common, and the coriander seed is cultivated on ridges. The fields, to a large extent, are covered with crops of mustard, the

seeds of which are exclusively used for expressing the oil, a considerable item of export.

The cotton shrub is largely cultivated near the sea, and especially on lands which have been gained from the water, and still contain saline particles. Both the white and the brown, or nankeen, cotton are grown, but the latter only in small quantities. Each is of a very fine fibre, superior to what is imported from India, but also twice as dear, and by no means of so long a staple. The *yu* hemp-plant, from which grass-cloth is made, grows almost wild, and is cut down twice or even thrice a-year for the sake of the fibres. The women, however, do not work it into a texture, but merely spin it into thread, and use it for sewing, probably on account of its strength.

The only walled town in the island is the capital Tinghae. One-third of the ground-plan of this has no habitations. The level sides of the wall are encompassed by a ditch, that stops short on the hill which enters the city on the north-west. The wall is 18 feet high and 15 feet thick, and on the west and east sides nearly in ruins, notwithstanding the extensive repairs by the Chinese in 1841. The parapet remains in a very few places. The hill enclosed within the wall on the north-west side is a spur from the neighbouring ridge, and was occupied in 1840 by the 26th, or Cameronian regiment, so many of whom fell victims to disease, and were buried there. The city is traversed by canals, which are a real nuisance, without any countervailing advantage. The largest street is that which runs in a straight direction between the south and north gates; the rest are small and short—many of them mere lanes. There are four gates at the cardinal points, forming the outlets of the principal streets, and also a water-gate between the west and south gates. The buildings are mostly of an inferior description, with the exception of two temples, dedicated to ancestors, and to the guardian idol of the city. In the former is the largest representation of Budha that has been met with. A few of the richer classes have long, rambling houses, walled in within a court containing a whole series of buildings. The shops of the better traders are very showy; but the common people have mere mud hovels, or paltry dwellings put together with tiles and stones, without regard to warmth, ventilation, cleanliness, or comfort. Many of them are built in squares; and in a little space, which four Englishmen would find too narrow for an habitation, there are perhaps forty Chinese huddled together. Tinghae would not, in fact, rank with a good country-town in England. Before our occupation it had a suburb towards the sea, called *Taou-tow*, consisting of streets, some wood-yards, distilleries, and stores, all of which were levelled with the ground,

and their places supplied by barracks. Temple, or Jos-house, Hill, which commands the town and harbour, and was in 1841 so diligently fortified by the Chinese, is 800 yards from the south gate, and 122 feet high, close to the beach, with a canal on the east side. The dyke along the front of *Fungtung* valley was converted by the notorious* Yukien into a breast-work against an attack by sea, and has since been falling into decay. During our occupation a new suburb, calculated to surpass the old one in extent and solidity, gradually rose up at Tungkeang Poo, some way up the Eastern creek or canal, and houses were daily rising there.

The harbour of Chusan is formed by the island itself on the north; Trumball and Macclesfield islands on the south; Grove Island and Beacon Rock on the east; Guardhouse and Tea Island on the west. It is well landlocked, the water varying from four to eight fathoms; but the currents are strong, with not very secure holding ground: they run nine knots per hour.

The largest place next to Tinghae is the town or village of Seaousha (Little Sandy Valley), a manufacturing station, where they make agricultural implements. *Ta-chen* has also a small town, as also *Sinkea-mun* to the east, and *Tsinkong* (or Sinkong) to the west. By far the greater portion of the population lives in villages and hamlets, which are scattered all over the island, and found in the most secluded spots. The richer landholders generally assemble their tenants in a very large enclosure, where a whole clan lives together with children and children's children, and this generally constitutes a village in itself.

The people of Chusan are shorter than the Chinese on the mainland; and there is no doubt of a considerable mixture of Japanese blood ever since that people possessed the island. It is well known that the Japanese are universally of short stature. Though often strong-limbed, the Chusanites are not a fine race. Their women are particularly unattractive: owing to the habit of drawing their hair very tight, or some other cause, they lose their hair early, and become bald. The materials of dress are generally the same in both sexes. In summer they are clothed in grass-cloth (called *Hea-poo*, or summer cloth), mostly dyed blue, and some wear next to the skin a strange garment composed of a bamboo net-work; that is, small sections of bamboo (like bugles) formed with string into a species of net, which prevents the upper garments coming into contact with the body. On festive occasions they are gaily decked out with the help of embroidery. The better classes wear the fine stuffs of Hång-chow and Soo-chow. Since the introduction of our calicoes the

* 'China during the War, and since the Peace,' vol. i. p. 184.

cleanliness and comforts of both sexes have advanced ; and this applies to the lower orders as well as the upper. In winter they wear stuffed cotton dresses, mostly of light-blue colour ; a few, also, sheepskins, and the more respectable classes, furs, which, during our stay, gradually gave way to broadcloth and camlets. The lower orders dress by no means so extensively in woollen as the cheapness of our long-ells might lead one to expect ; and this is the more surprising as contrasted with the considerable consumption of English cotton goods. A thick and coarse kind of Russian cloth was much in use ; but of late the merchants of Ningpo, as well as the people of Chusan, seem to have preferred our manufactures, which, though thinner, are more durable, and retain their appearance longer than the Russian. The general introduction of woollens must be a work of time ; but, as a proof of the growing consumption, may be mentioned the great falling off in those silk manufactures which were formerly used as either linings or covers for fur dresses, as these were worn outwards or inwards.

Few ragged persons are met with ; but the thrifty housewives understand patchwork thoroughly, and the warmth and thickness of the garment increase in proportion as it is mended. The under-garments of all classes are generally in an abominable state ; nor are the richest ashamed of vermin and cutaneous diseases.

All classes of people are gross feeders ; and, strange to say, the only articles of food for which most of them entertain an aversion are beef, milk, and butter. This seems originally grounded in the old Buddhist superstition, in regard to the flesh at least. Rice is the basis of the daily food of all, eked out among the poor with barley, sweet potatoes, and millet. They have three hot meals a-day ; and even the beggar has a number of small messes with which to season his rice. The richer classes, even on common occasions, have as many as twenty small saucers before them, containing pickled fish, cockles, salted vegetables, soy, and similar condiments. The sea furnishes the largest quota in this account, and the ingenuity of the people in preparing these marine delicacies is remarkable. Whatever is highest seasoned and most pungent pleases them best. The consumption of meat is but small, as in the rest of China ; and even pork, in such general use elsewhere throughout that country, is but sparingly eaten at Chusan. On the occurrence of festivals they prepare dishes which, in point of elaboration, might rival the productions of finished cooks ; and it is by no means uncommon to see as many as seventy following each other in succession. Generally, however, they are very moderate in their habits. Even the use of the distilled spirit called samshoo, so general on the arrival of the British, very much declined subsequently, in consequence of

the many restrictions it became necessary to impose for the sake of the troops. The consumption of opium was very small in comparison with that at Singapore and Hongkong.

The town of Tinghae and its suburbs had, at the commencement of 1843, about 27,500 inhabitants, including men, women, and children; a large number, considering the small extent of buildings. But even this large number, strange to say, under the government of foreign conquerors, increased towards 1846 (when the island was restored) to above 35,000. Our census did not extend to the whole island, of which the population can only be *assumed* at 200,000 besides. Notwithstanding the general fertility, and the cultivation of rice in every available nook, considerable importations of grain are required.

Dr. Gutzlaff, who was for some time civil magistrate at Chusan, reported that

“Nine-tenths of the inhabitants live from hand to mouth, upon a very miserable pittance. I have gone from cottage to cottage, from hovel to hovel, in order to satisfy myself about the means of subsistence among the majority of the labouring classes, and found it at a very low level. An artisan, who understands his work tolerably well, receives, besides his daily food, about 60 copper cash (the twentieth part of a dollar), or 2½*d*. With this he has to maintain his family; but they contrive to subsist upon such a pittance, and the reason is, that the wives understand how to eke out a trifle; and the children, almost as soon as they can walk, are taught to contribute something to the common stock. Even under such pinching poverty they are seldom heard to grumble, seeming to understand their duties better than their rights, and never looking to others for aid as long as they can move themselves. The poverty met with in the houses, accompanied by unabated cheerfulness, is a characteristic of the Chusanites.* When, after having prohibited begging in the streets, all the paupers of the island were collected, we had about seventy individuals, and these were either old, decrepit men and women, or blind and maimed people, who justly claimed our charity.”

Any one in the town may carry on what business he chooses, having first served an apprenticeship, and been for some time a journeyman. In the country valleys, however, the poorer classes depend entirely upon the more prosperous landholders, and, though slavery does not exist, they have to work as hard as any slaves. There is no legal restraint; the bond is merely social, the landlord being in some measure responsible for supplying his peasantry in time of scarcity with provisions at a certain rate. There is an extraordinary restriction as to the transport of grain from one valley to another (just as there is in China, from one province to another), because it is believed that if this transport were allowed, the price in the immediate neighbourhood would rise. Owing to this absurdity, the price of rice in Chusan itself varies sometimes surprisingly in the respective districts.

The Chusanites are not fond of the sea like the people of Fokien ;

* Perhaps of the Chinese in general.

but on land they resemble their own buffaloes in the patience with which they tread day after day through their inundated rice-fields. Being able to bear much fatigue, and perfectly hardened against the inclemency of the weather, they are subject to few diseases. The two that prevail most are "jungle fever" and elephantiasis. The former is at times very malignant, and carries off numbers in a short time, as was the case in 1840, partly perhaps the consequence of the war. The latter displays itself in the swollen legs of the patient, which increase in size gradually until his death; though this complaint, however incurable, does not seem much to shorten life, as many who are afflicted with it reach old age.

No male above twenty years of age remains single if he can help it, and the women are married as early as sixteen. An old unmarried woman is unknown, nor are old bachelors often met with. The advantages attending the married state, according to Chinese institutions and notions, keep up the population to a high-pressure state; but there are few families with more than four or five children. The disproportion between sons and daughters cannot be ascribed to natural causes, and it is admitted that female infanticide prevails here as in other parts of China. The females, notwithstanding their cramped feet, work very hard both at home and in their fields; but the men never oblige them to plough or perform the labour of cattle, as is the case in some parts of China.

A wedding is celebrated by all with more expense and display than any other event of life. The parent of the bride receives a certain sum of money, as soon as they agree to marry their daughter, but they at the same time furnish her *trousseau*. The men are generally too poor to have more than one wife, and the conjugal tie is pretty lasting. The wives are remarkable for their quarrelsome dispositions and passionate behaviour when once roused.

They do not attend much at home to the education of their children, beyond teaching the daughters to sew. The sons at about six years of age go to school if the parent can afford it, and pay perhaps the value of two or three dollars annually to the teacher. In those establishments of course none but the most elementary knowledge is taught. The boys learn to read the sacred books of Confucius, and to write a legible hand, and leave school as early as twelve or fourteen years of age. Those who intend to repair to the public examinations, and choose a higher walk of life, continue longer at school and subsequently read at home. When we first took possession of the island, there were two colleges wherein the youth of maturer age studied to become graduates, but the sum total of the learning, as usual, did not go beyond explaining the classical books (those of Confucius), and writing essays. As some thirty were advanced every year to the grade of

Sew-tsae, (bachelor) there was a great deal of emulation among them. A few of the elder having obtained the rank of *Keu-jin* (licentiate), and one of them even promoted to a magistracy in Honan province, literature was held in some esteem and reputation on the island. Nevertheless the mass of the population, in consequence of their extreme poverty, can neither read nor write, and this is the more remarkable, as in most parts of China few of the male sex can be found entirely devoid of an elementary education.

The character of the population comprises the usual mixture of good and bad. It has been shown that they are a hardworking and patient race, and easily guided when once their confidence has been gained; but, like their countrymen on the mainland, they are commonly lying, thievish, and faithless. The most solemn asseverations amount to nothing, and nobody considers himself obliged to perform promises unless bound by something more cogent than a mere sense of duty. They are fond of litigation, easily awed into obedience, orderly and quiet; but of course ignorant and narrow minded, and incapable of comprehending anything beyond the range of their very limited experience. We have seen that they are patterns of contentment, cheerful bearing, and patience under difficulties; but in their social dealings they are knaves, and, whoever has the power and opportunity to do it, oppresses and takes advantage of his neighbour. During our four years' tenure of the island as conquerors, martial law found them very quiet and orderly subjects, and had little or nothing to do the whole time.

Such religion as they possess consists in the forms and rites of the grossest idolatry. In the town, and in the numerous valleys, there are abundance of temples (called by our people *Jos-houses*) built by subscription on nearly the same models according to their respective sizes. These serve for the varied, and somewhat inconsistent, purposes of schools, taverns, gambling-houses, and theatres. They are generally built, in the country, at some romantic or picturesque spot, in some hilly pass, or some wooded nook, and derive more of their attractions from this than from their architecture. In them are to be found a few clay images of gods or deified heroes rudely executed, and in the larger ones is a priest who subsists on alms, and rather degrades the ecclesiastical character by acting at once as tavern-keeper and waiter to the travellers or visitors. Both temples and priests belong to the Buddhist religion, and the hierophants are of the lowest order of uneducated people, satisfied with a bare subsistence. All their business is to burn incense before the images, keep the lamps trimmed, and on festive occasions light up the building; or, at other times, they are working in the field; for to some of the temples a piece of land is attached as an endowment. They

exercise no influence upon the minds of the people, but are generally treated with contempt.

Altogether different from these are the preachers of the *Taou* sect, or Rationalists,* of whom there are about thirty in the town of Tinghae, and some in the country. They read sermons at burials, marriages, times of sickness, and other domestic occasions, and also exercise the office of exorcists, the Chinese being especially afraid of ghosts. The punishment of hanging was viewed by the natives at Hongkong as a comparatively indifferent matter, as long as the bodies were delivered to the relatives, to be interred with the usual ceremonies; but when the order was given that they should be buried within the precincts of the gaol, the terrors of both hanging and imprisonment were both much increased, and with salutary effect.

The priests of *Taou* wear no distinguishing badge, nor do they maintain celibacy, but lead a secular life among the people at large. In their professional capacity they recite in a drawling tone discourses which only the initiated can understand, and will go on for five days for a single dollar. The common people look upon them more as sorcerers than teachers.

In many houses there is a domestic shrine, where the inmates light a lamp and burn incense; but, subsequent to the occupation of the island by the English, idolatry of all kinds very much declined. Their gods had perhaps fallen into discredit since the untoward results of the war. Occasionally a procession might be seen winding its way through the streets; but only the rabble were to be found in its train. The mass of the people really live without religion, totally unmindful of anything but the supply of their physical wants. The only Sabbath in the whole twelve months is the New Year; all the rest is a round of unceasing daily toil, to those who are condemned to labour.

The occupation of nineteen in every twenty of the inhabitants is agriculture. A large portion of the soil is held by families, not individually, but according to the Chinese rule of domestic clubbing. On letting lands to the cultivators, a stipulation is made for one half of the produce in kind, and, when the harvest arrives, the corn, on being beaten out, is put into scales and thus equally divided. The cultivator pays the tax to Government, according to the nature of the land, at so much per mow, a space that will produce at the most 8 peculs of *paddy*, or rice in the husk. The farmer must provide all the means of cultivation, and holds his lease, as tenant at will, entirely at the pleasure of the owner, who seldom lets above ten mows to one farmer, generally only five, with the produce of which the latter must manage to subsist.

* Described in 'The Chinese,' vol. ii.

Their agricultural implements are of the most simple description. The ploughshare is a piece of cast iron ; the spikes of the harrow consist of knives which cut sideways. After the second rice harvest is off, they plough the fields, allowing them either to lie in large clods, or sowing a species of clover, which is used, not for feeding cattle, but as a manure. This is confirmed by the observation of Mr. Fortune, who says,—

“ After the last crop of rice has been gathered in, the ground is immediately ploughed up, and prepared to receive certain hardy green crops, such as clover, the oil plant, and other varieties of the cabbage tribe. The trefoil, or clover, is sown on ridges to keep it above the level of the water, which often covers the valleys during the winter months. When I first went to Chusan and saw this plant cultivated so extensively in the fields, I was at a loss to know the use to which it was applied, for the Chinese have few cattle to feed, and these are easily supplied from the road-sides and uncultivated parts of the hills. On inquiry I found that this crop was cultivated almost exclusively for manure. The large fresh leaves of the trefoil are also picked and used as a vegetable by the natives.”

Their main reliance, however, is on the most disagreeable, though perhaps the most fertile, manure so universal in China. They keep it in small water-proof tanks, and promote fermentation by throwing substances into it. They are in this respect extremely filthy, and with senses more obtuse than might be readily imagined. For peas, and some other vegetables of the pulse tribe, they use dry ashes as manure, throwing it into the drill prepared for the seed, and thus manuring the plant rather than the ground. The discovery of Liebig, that beans and peas contain *Caseine*, a substance identical with the curd of milk, has been familiar to the Chinese for centuries ; and *bean-curd*, or cheese (called by them *Tow-foo*), is commonly hawked about the streets.

They transplant almost every article from a seed bed, no matter whether green vegetable, grain, or pulse, and assimilate the cultivation of nearly everything to that of rice. In the case of the sweet potato (a convolvulus), they cut off the sprouts and plant them, after having dug up the previous crop. These sprouts are an article of trade ; and, to improve the quality of the potato, people from great distances on the coast of China come over to Chusan and plant whole tracts of hills, with a certain stipulation regarding the produce.*

Chusan has but few manufactures. Some weavers make up coarse stuffs of cotton from yarn which has been spun by the cottagers ; but the home-made article is not sufficient to clothe more than a portion of the population. There are some forges constantly at work in *Seaou-sha* (the Little Sandy Valley) for providing

* Might we not either prevent, or greatly mitigate, the potato disease, by taking more pains in the importation of seeds from parts of the world where the complaint has not yet appeared, or climates better suited to the original nature of the plant ?

agricultural implements ; and the salt works on the coast, make up the total of industry apart from agriculture. Within the town of Ting-hae, during our occupation, a considerable business was carried on in the carving and varnishing work, which exists in such perfection on the opposite coast at Ningpo. Nothing can exceed the durability and neatness of furniture prepared in this manner. The greatest care is bestowed on bedsteads, or rather little tabernacles which constitute both a bed and dressing-room within themselves, and on which a profusion of carving and inlay-work is lavished. One of these obtained a prize at our Great Exhibition.

Previous to our occupation of the island, a great number of junks which traded between the N. and S. touched at Chusan, anchoring in the harbour of Ting-hae, where the suburbs formed a *dépôt* for merchandise. The presence of our shipping seemed to discourage this resort ; but Sinkeamun to the eastward continued to be a place of rendezvous for a great number of vessels, chiefly fishing craft, which ranged at large among the group of islands, and along the embouchure of the Keang, manned principally by Fokien sailors. These adventures are partly carried on with the capital of the island ; and some Fokien firms, who traded in company with Chusan merchants, were established in Ting-hae. Thus the most necessary article in China next to rice, that is, fish, was provided for the adjacent main from the Chusan group, whose shallow seas and landlocked roadsteads are unusually favourable to fishing. The other principal exports were coarse black tea, cotton, vegetable tallow, sweet potatoes, and some wheat. The larger junks were driven away by our capture of the island, but the smaller craft seemed to increase. They came from Wunchow, Taechow, Shihpoo, Seang-shan, Ningpo, Shaouhing, Hângchow, and Chapoo, bringing the produce of their respective districts, and principally rice, as well as Sycee silver ; in return for which they bought our cotton manufactures, opium, a few woollens, and some Strait's produce. But the European trade at Chusan never approached the anticipations of many sanguine speculators. The neighbourhood of Shanghae and Ningpo was alone enough to attract and engross the main part at those large marts, especially the former. Compared, however, with what existed previous to our arrival, the trade was active, and many of the native traders of Tinghae became comparatively opulent ; a result which they could very little have anticipated, from what they must have been accustomed originally to regard as a great calamity.

Should Japan become in any degree open to European trade, Chusan, from its vicinity, must occupy a still more important position than it has ever done yet. The new whaling-trade, established by the Americans in the adjacent seas, would find it a most convenient spot for refitting and supplies, for which they now resort

to Hongkong. Nothing more would be then required to complete its prosperity but an increased cultivation of tea and silk, for both which products it possesses the exact geographical position and climate which are found most favourable on the opposite coast of China.

Previous to our occupation, Chusan and all the smaller islands of the group constituted a district under the jurisdiction of Ningpo. The principal civil authority was a magistrate of the rank of Hien; with two subordinates at Tinghae, and several others on the other islands, under his charge. He transmitted about 10,000 tales and 30,580 shih of rice annually to the government on the main.

At the head of the military establishment there was an admiral, with about 20 to 30 war-junks, and a nominal force of 5000 to 6000 men. A great part of these were mere men of straw, whose pay and allowances were drawn, in Chinese fashion, by the mandarins. It was seldom that a tenth of the number could be mustered, and it was said that at our first attack in 1840 no more than 500 men were forthcoming. Upon the temporary evacuation in 1841 the importance of the position was fully perceived by the Chinese government, and three generals, with about 10,000 men, were sent over expressly, at the same time that a militia was raised on the spot. On the second capture in 1841 these three generals all fell, one in action, and the two others by their own hands. After the conclusion of peace the Chinese government endeavoured to retain some authority over the island, notwithstanding our occupation by treaty, and an officer was stationed at *Taekoshan* with this view. But his improper interference became soon checked by the adoption of summary measures, and the inhabitants were thereby taught that no divided sway would be permitted during our occupation. When British rule became extended over the island it was the first object of our officers to put a stop to the violences and disorder which had prevailed during the war. Native constables were established in all the valleys; and these being generally men of substance and influence, and supported by our authorities, succeeded in restoring order and ensuring the security of person and property. There was, besides, a small and effective police, which, being backed on occasion by military means, expelled the thieves and robbers from the island. In a short time crime decreased, nothing was lost that did not in time become restored, or its equivalent recovered. The exemption from all taxes during our tenure of the island tended of course to conciliate the good-will of the people; and upon its evacuation in 1846 the Emperor's government did not deem it prudent to alienate the Chusanites by demanding past arrears from them. Their experience of British rule under circumstances of military conquest can hardly have failed to convey a favourable impression;

and the stimulus given to the trade and industry of the island rendered the war, in its ultimate results, a benefit rather than an infliction to the inhabitants themselves.

It is almost needless to observe that the progress of the civil war, and the vicinity of Chusan to Nanking (the most likely seat of government for a possible Chinese dynasty) are circumstances which may bring this important and highly-favoured island into very prominent notice.

XXI.—*The Peninsula and Bay of Samaná, in the Dominican Republic.* By Sir R. H. SCHOMBURGK, H.B.M. Consul at the Dominican Republic, Corresponding F.R.G.S., &c.

Communicated by the FOREIGN OFFICE.

Read June 13, 1853.

History.—Columbus, returning to Spain after his first discovery of the New World, passed, on the 12th of January, 1493, a high and beautiful headland, to which he gave the name of Cabo del Enamorado, or the Lover's Cape (at present called Cape Cabron). Further eastward he saw another, which he named Cabo San Feramo (at present known as Cape Samaná), the most eastern point of the so-called Peninsula of the same name. Doubling this headland, he saw a fine gulf of such an extent before him that he supposed it to be an arm of the sea, separating Hispaniola from some other land.

Here he anchored, and having sent his boats ashore, they were received by natives, who, from their ferocious looks and undaunted manners, appeared quite different from the mild and pacific people the Spaniards had hitherto met. They were of a ferocious aspect, and had painted themselves hideously in various colours. Some were armed with war-clubs, others had bows of more than a man's length; their arrows were pointed with hard wood or with bones. One of their number having ventured on board, Columbus was induced to suppose him to be of the Carib tribe, and resolved to act with caution, and, having regaled his visitor, he sent him on shore; but, as the boat approached the land, upwards of fifty armed savages rushed from an ambush. They were appeased by the warrior in the boat; and, having landed, the boat's crew mixed with the natives and endeavoured to bargain for some of their weapons, when, in an unexplained manner, mistrust arose; the natives seized their bows and clubs, and provided themselves with cords, as if they intended to capture their visitors. The Spaniards immediately attacked them, wounded two, and put the rest to flight. "This was the first